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INTERNATIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

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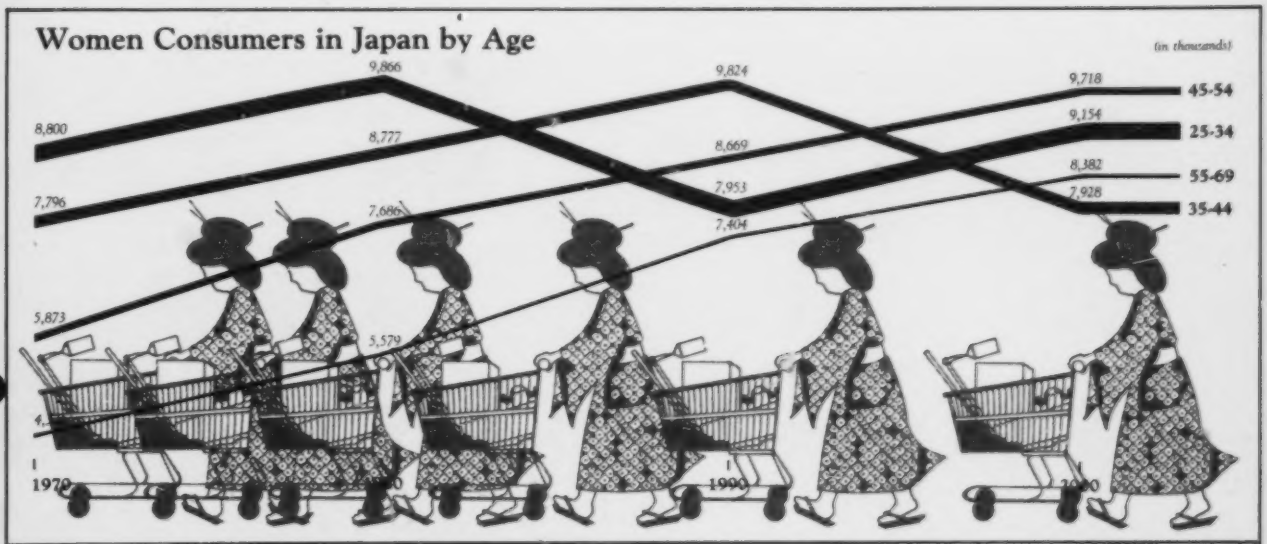

Japanese Women Buyers Like What They Find

Eighty percent of customers in Japanese department stores are women. Yet most purchases from U.S. suppliers have been made by men.

"Imagine," says Mrs. Ichiko Ishihara, executive managing director of Takashimaya Co., Ltd., a $2 billion-a-year, six-store group with 8,000 employees, "men bought women's intimate apparel and even kitchen ware. Yet in Japan, men never enter a kitchen. What can you expect?"

Mrs. Ishihara was in New York City leading a mission of 30 Japanese women executives. From Oct. 9 to 24, they searched five American cities — Chicago; New York; High Point, North Carolina; Atlanta; and Los Angeles — for new and unique housewares, furniture, and apparel to buy from the United States and sell in the Japanese market.

The mission was arranged by the Japanese External Trade Organization (JETRO) and could radically change the way the Japanese approach products made in the United States. The mission executives will appraise future women's missions to the United States on their return home.

The purpose of the mission, according to a JETRO spokesman, is to help correct the trade imbalance between the U.S. and Japan. JETRO says that without a firm effort to improve it, the imbalance will remain well into the 1990s. Mr. Mitsuaki Sato, the newly-named chief executive director of the New York City JETRO office, said the mission is part of the effort to overcome friction with the United States.

According to a sampling of the American manufacturers who met with the executives during an exhibit

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in New York, there was one consistent difference between dealing with the women representatives and earlier dealings with Japanese men.

"The women buyers were decisive. They knew what they wanted, why they wanted what they selected, and they were ready to pay for their purchases on the spot," one exhibitor said.

In an interview, the women described what kinds of U.S. products they were seeking.

First, they sought to fill a gap in merchandise for a new trend occurring in Japan — the celebration of many additional occasions. Second, they were looking for items they would like as furnishings for their own homes, and for apparel they or their own children would enjoy. Third, they wanted the style and quality of items that the Japanese — a primarily middle-class population — will buy. And, fourth, they expressed a need for concepts that would help them merchandise the items they buy.

Gift Giving

The new trend is evident in gift giving. Occasions well-accepted by Americans such as birthdays and Valentine's Day are just beginning to be celebrated in Japan. But the selection of gifts for those occasions are limited.

The primary occasions for gifts in the past, one buyer said, were for the arrival of winter and summer, and 90 percent of the gifts were food. However, grade school children are increasingly exchanging birthday gifts, so lower priced gifts appropriate for a birthday are needed. Packaging for gifts — such as paper with a heart motif or children's gift wrap — is also marketable, the buyers said. Beyond the children's birthday gifts, gifts in a wide range of prices are needed.

Mrs. Atsuko Banno, leader of the women's and children's wear group, said her group saw metal boxes they liked because of their quality and design. She envisioned the metal boxes being sold full of babies' socks, for example. The designs that reflected the summer and winter seasons were fine, but more designs would also be welcome.

Clyde Brownstone, of Gift Box Corp. of America, said Mrs. Ishihara bought a selection of his paper boxes. She was particularly interested in boxes that telescoped in size, and ones that had a chart that would allow the user to place an object to be boxed on the chart and determine the appropriate box size. These items help to meet the Japanese concern with merchandising.

Posters and graphic arts are appealing for new homes, one buyer said. However, instead of the abstract art shown them, the women suggested that Japanese people would prefer representational art, especially scenery, of any geographic location. Nature scenes are favorites.

The women wanted stands to hold the posters. They liked the natural look for picture frames that they saw in New York — frames made of authentic weathered barn siding — according to Mr. Hiroyuki Wakabayashi, executive director of public affairs for JETRO in New York. He said they also liked the high quality, pastel shades, and simplicity of designs of plastic containers for use in bathrooms and kitchens.

Children's and Women's Apparel

Mrs. Banno, executive vice president of the 98 children's clothing shops of Familiar, Ltd. expressed disappointment that in New York the only manufacturer that displayed children's merchandise had items of inferior quality. She said these items would be unacceptable in Japan where high quality is of importance to retail customers. In clothing, the women said they would like to see real fur. The only items shown to them were of artificial fur.

Even secretaries do not wear artificial fur, the women said, but added that an acceptable compromise might be lamb's wool. Ten years ago the wives of successful Japanese executives would wear mink. Now, what matters is not necessarily mink, but rather fashion or convenience. Considered fashionable are short blouson jackets that look chic with casual pants. Fur-lined coats would also be practical and convenient, one buyer said.

For youths, they suggested longer, more casual coats, even if the young people already had one coat.

The trend toward single living that is occurring in the United States is also a Japanese trend, the buyers said. Now, about 80 percent of Japanese housewares and food markets are geared for use by families. Yet increasingly, single men and women are setting up households. Mrs. Yoshimi Ohno, group leader for the furniture and interior group, and a coordinator of furniture buying for Mitsukoshi Ltd., a 28-store chain that sells more than $2 billion a year, said she missed seeing the way this country's single working people live and eat.

Mrs. Ishihara agreed. "I would have loved to see how new and changing American diets are changing equipment Americans use," she said.

One reason the women were interested in seeing more of the American way of life is that Japanese retailers cannot merely present merchandise. They need to explain the use of items. Mrs. Ishihara said that retailers there need to educate Japanese consumers or they cannot continue to attract them.

Mrs. Ishihara particularly enjoyed the display techniques of Zabar's in New York while Mrs. Ohno was intrigued with the finesse of Macy's Cellar.

Mr. Sato said that most of the U.S. companies that have worked through JETRO to bring their merchandise to Japan have been large ones — "the size of General Motors" — but that his organization is interested in talking with and assisting small- and medium-sized firms as well.

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Language and Literacy in Africa

Editor's Note: *The following information on language and literacy is reprinted from* An Atlas of African Affairs *by Ieuan LL. Griffiths. This 200-page paperback book briefly summarizes environmental, historical, political, and economic information on Africa. Its maps are particularly well done. The chapters reprinted here with permission of Methuen & Co. Ltd. Order for $11.95 from Methuen, 733 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017.*

Two thousand different languages have been identified in Africa, some localized, some dialects of a family of languages, others widely spoken regional languages of trade. The distribution of languages is complex with many areas of linguistic overlap and, at any one place "layers" of language, each fulfilling a particular purpose. African facility in handling languages is remarkable. The barely literate house-servant at Makerere would speak to her family in Ru Toro, to her neighbors in Luganda, to the traders in Swahili, to her employers in English, and, to her employers' amazement and near-monoglot embarrassment, to a visitor in fluent French, explaining that her former husband was Rwandaise.

The distribution of African languages bears no relationship to modern political boundaries and single language groups are often divided between two or more states. The peoples of Nigeria among them speak literally hundreds of different languages. The creation of national unity without a unifying language is difficult, and most states fall back on the former colonial language or an Africanized version of it.

Some states have a major local language as the official one. Swahili, the trading language of the East African Coast, is the official language of Tanzania although it is not the hearth language of most Tanzanians. In making Somali their official language, Somalia had to overcome the "little" problem of standardizing a written form of the language. Other countries use a local language officially alongside the former colonial language. For black South Africans, Afrikaans is the language of oppression and other African languages are the tools of the divide and rule homelands policy. Urban blacks demand to be educated in English and in 1976 were prepared to die for that in Soweto.

African languages are classified into five basic groups. The Khoisan languages of the San (Bushmen) and Khoi-Khoi (Hottentots) are limited

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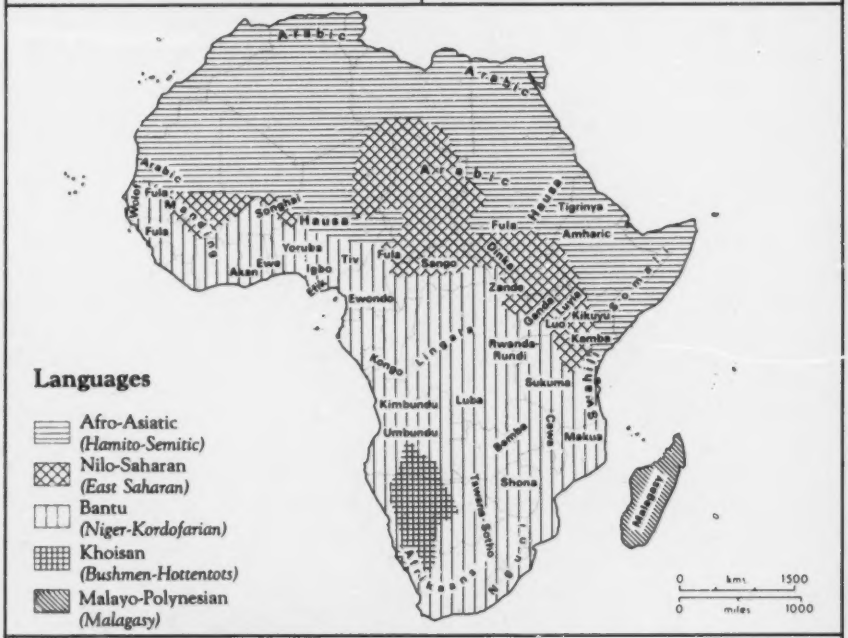
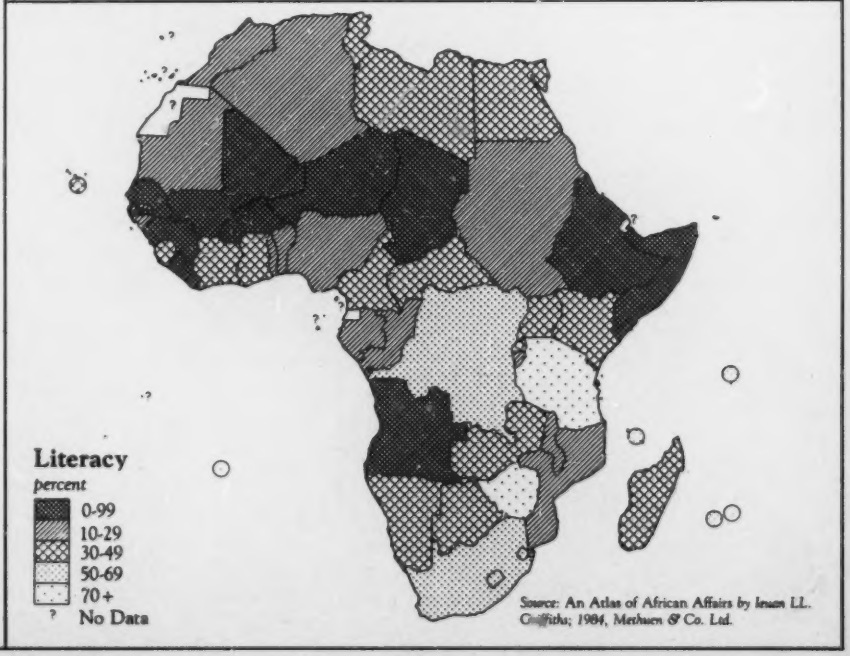




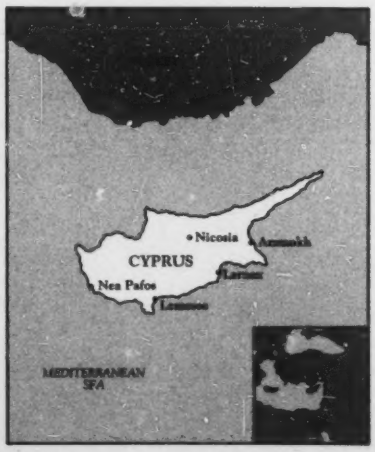
Source: An Atlas of African Affairs by Ieuan LL. Griffiths; 1984, Methuen & Co. Ltd.

Country Profile
Republic of Cyprus

"Caution, Danger: Road Slippery with Grape Juice" is a sign often seen in the Troodas Mountains of Cyprus. Although Cyprus is not often identified as a wine-producing country, grapes and wines are among its principal exports. In 1981, export of these products along with tobacco products were valued at $55 million, more than double their value in 1976.

More important recently is the establishment of Cyprus as an offshore business center. The U.S. Commerce Department reports that more than 2,000 firms have registered in Cyprus as offshore businesses and that the number is increasing at about 30 percent a year. The strains between the Greek and Turkish populations apparently have not discouraged the companies, which are primarily European (mostly from Great Britain, West Germany, and the Netherlands). Only about 20 percent are American-owned companies. Industries represented include investment services, trade, construction, engineering, real estate services, shipping, insurance, and consulting.

The presence of the offshore businesses is creating a better climate for suppliers of business products and services, hotels, restaurants, transportation, and other services, as well as some upscale consumer products.



Despite the presence of the offshore businesses, the Cyprus economy is growing at only about 1.2 percent a year. Inflation has slowed somewhat from its 13-percent level in 1980. The 7-percent growth rates of the 1960s have slowed since the Turkish invasion in 1974.

To understand the current population of Cyprus, it is necessary to understand the political situation as well. In 1974, members of the Cyprus National Guard staged a coup against their mainland Greek officers. The coup collapsed when the a second Turkish invasion resulted in Turkey's occupying 40 percent of Cyprus.

The consequences of the invasion were a geographically and ethnically divided country with almost no interaction. The cease-fire line prevents movement between Greek-and-Turkish Cypriot controlled areas, and the one legal crossing point in Nicosia is strictly guarded. The U.S. recognizes only the Greek Cypriot government of Cyprus in the south, and does not recognize the Turkish Federated State of Cyprus in the north.

Political turmoil following the 1974 invasion resulted in massive population displacement. The northern part of the island currently has about 150,000 residents, while the southern part has about 500,000 inhabitants. Most current demographic data are available only through the Government of Cyprus and are for Government-Controlled Areas only.

Population Growth

The population of Cyprus was estimated at 650,700 at the end of 1982, compared with 641,600 persons at the end of 1981. The 1.4 percent increase represented 8,886 more births than deaths, and only slightly positive net migration.

A Multi-Round Demographic Survey conducted in 1980-81 is the basis of the most current population data on Cyprus. The survey consisted of a 7-percent random sample of all households in Government-Controlled Areas, or the four districts in the south. No current statistics are available for the Turkish districts.

The last census of Cyprus was taken in 1976. Then the de jure population (people usually in residence) was 633,000. Previous censuses were taken sporadically. For example, prior to the one in 1973, there was one in 1960. The one before that was conducted in 1946. Population declined about 1 percent between 1973 and 1976, reflecting deaths and emigration due to the invasion.

The birth rate in Cyprus in mid-1982 was 22 births per 1,000 population, a slight increase from a steady decline since 1966. The death rate in 1982 was 8 deaths per 1,000 population. Low points for both birth and death rates were recorded in 1975 following the disruptions of the invasion.

In 1980, 1,700 people immigrated to Cyprus, but by 1982, the total had dropped to 390 people. Many of the immigrants apparently were Cypriots returning home from the United Kingdom, the traditional destination of Cypriot emigrants. In 1976, 5,600 people left the country, but by 1982, that figure had also dropped, to 204 people. Just over half of all emigrants moved to Australia.

The average annual rate of growth is 1.4 percent at current birth and death rates. The population will double in 50 years if current rates persist. Given such a small base population and low growth rate, the population is projected to equal only 700,000 by the year 2000 and only 800,000 by 2020.

Regions and Cities

Cyprus is composed of six districts, four of which are in the southern

Government-Controlled Areas (Nicosia, Limassol, Larnaca, and Paphos) and two of which are in the northern portion of the island controlled by Turkey (Kyrenia and Famagusta). Strict residential segregation is imposed in most areas and Turkish flags designate areas off-limits to Greek Cypriots. In Nicosia there is an invisible "green line" down the middle of the street which divides the Turkish and Greek sides.

The Government-Controlled Area was 57 percent urban in 1980. The largest cities are Nicosia, the capital, with about 230,000 persons, and Limassol, with about 125,000 persons. All urban areas in the four southern districts experienced net population gains from internal migration in the past few years. The towns of Paphos and Limassol had the highest number of immigrants, while their corresponding rural areas had the largest number of out-migrants. In addition to internal migration to the cities, 80 percent of immigrants from abroad settle in cities and towns.

Urbanization has been relatively slow because Cypriots do not move very often. In 1981, only 8 percent of the population moved from their prior residence. About 5 percent moved to another house in the same town or village, 2 percent moved to another town or village (but usually in the same district), and 1 percent came from abroad. This is not a good market for moving services.

Young single persons are most likely to move from the countryside to the city, while the elderly are the least likely to move. Movers are predominantly male and in the 20-to-29-year age group. Movers tend to be more highly educated than nonmovers; 65 percent of urban-to-urban movers have a secondary education or higher. This is similar to the United States where the best educated people are the most mobile.

Nearly one-third of the population of Cyprus was displaced in 1974. The districts of Kyrenia, Famagusta, and Nicosia were the most severely affected by these forced moves. The political displacement resulted in a large proportion of people making at least one move during their lifetimes. Nearly 60 percent of all persons aged 15 and over had made such a move by 1980. Those in urban areas have been most affected. Over 70 percent of urban residents have made at least one move compared with less than 40 percent of rural residents.

The three primary reasons survey respondents gave for moving were employment, getting married or engaged, and desire for a change of environment. Individuals moving between towns gave employment as the most frequent reason for moving, and movers to rural areas most often cited marriage or engagement.

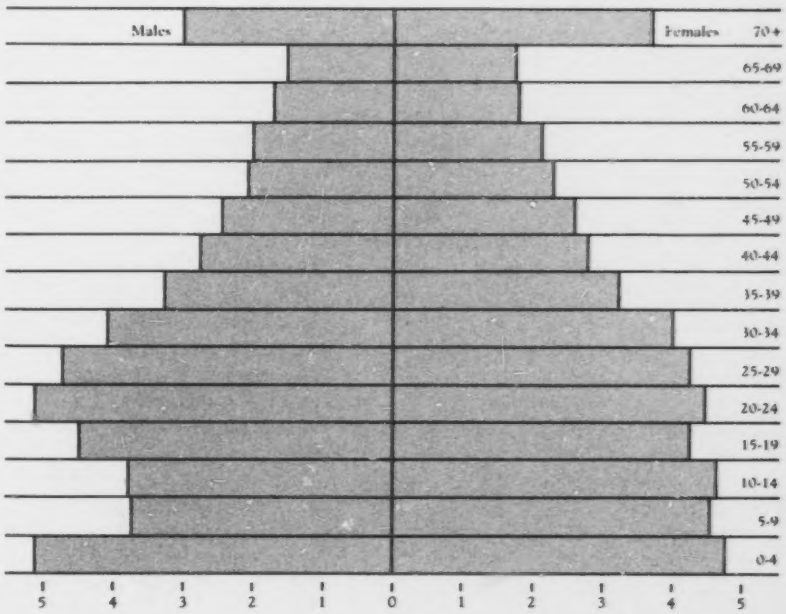
Ethnicity and Religion

About 80 percent of Cypriots are of Greek origin and 20 percent are of Turkish origin. Greek and Turkish are the principal languages. English is the standard second language for Cypriots of both ethnic groups due to the island's colonial status under Great Britain from 1878 to 1960. The majority of Cypriot business people are multilingual.

"Enosis" — union with Greece — is a concept perpetually debated among Cypriots. Some enjoy the independence gained in 1960, while others prefer the security of becoming part of Greece. Much of the cultural heritage is Greek and Greek holidays should be taken into account when planning business transactions.

Population of Cyprus by Age and Sex: 1982

(in percent)



Age	Total	Males	Females
All ages	645,500	323,700	321,800
0-4	64,200	33,200	31,000
5-9	47,100	24,200	22,900
10-14	48,100	24,600	23,500
15-19	56,300	29,100	27,200
20-24	65,500	33,500	32,000
25-29	57,900	30,400	27,500
30-34	52,100	26,400	25,700
35-39	42,400	21,500	20,900
40-44	35,900	17,700	18,200
45-49	32,500	15,900	16,600
50-54	28,900	13,700	15,200
55-59	27,100	13,100	14,000
60-64	22,900	11,100	11,800
65-69	21,500	9,900	11,600
70+	43,100	19,400	23,700

Source: Demographic Report, 1982, Department of Statistics and Research, Ministry of Finance, September 1983.

Percentage Distribution of Households by Size and Place of Residence in Cyprus: 1971 and 1980/1981

Size of House (No. of persons)	Total		Urban		Rural	
	1971	1980/81	1971	1980/81	1971	1980/81
All households	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1	3.0	8.3	2.6	7.0	3.8	10.0
2	16.8	22.1	15.4	20.1	20.0	24.8
3	19.5	16.9	21.0	17.9	16.0	15.7
4	23.8	24.4	26.0	28.1	18.5	19.5
5	19.3	15.4	19.8	15.2	18.3	15.6
6	10.4	7.4	10.0	7.1	11.4	7.7
7	4.1	3.2	3.0	2.9	6.7	3.7
8 or more	3.1	2.3	2.2	1.7	5.3	3.0
Average size	4.0	3.65	4.0	3.68	4.1	3.62

Source: Multi-round Demographic Survey 1980/1981, Main Report (Preliminary Issue), Department of Statistics and Research, Ministry of Finance, July 1983.

Over three-quarters of Cypriots are Greek Orthodox and 19 percent are Moslem, reflecting the Greek-Turkish proportions in the total population. There are small numbers of Armenian-Gregorian, Roman Catholic, and Maronite worshippers. Due to the relocation plan, the majority of Moslems live in the two northern districts and the majority of Greek Orthodox live in the south.

Age Distribution

The population of Cyprus is aging gradually as fertility falls. About one-quarter of all Cypriots were under age 15 in 1981, compared with 29 percent in 1971.

Cyprus's age composition lies somewhere between those of developed and less developed nations. The U.S. has lower proportions in the younger ages and higher proportions in the older ages, whereas Turkey, for example, had 38 percent of its population under age 15 and only 4 percent aged 65 and older in 1981. The rural population in Cyprus is slightly older than the urban population. Twenty-six percent of rural residents were under age 15 in 1981 versus 25 percent of urban residents, and 12 percent of the rural population was aged 65 or over versus 8 percent of the urban population.

The dependency ratio (the number of people in their economically productive years — ages 15 to 64 — to the number not economically productive — under age 15 and aged 65 and over) for Cyprus is 53, compared with 73 for Turkey and over 100 for the countries of Jordan, Iraq, and Syria.

Expectation of life at birth in 1981 was 72 years for men and 76 years for women. The infant mortality rate was 18 deaths per 1,000 live births.

Households and Families

Mean household size in 1981 was 3.6 members. The definition of a household excludes students and persons who have been away for more than one year. There is little difference between mean household size in rural and urban areas, although urban areas have slightly larger households. This is different from most places where rural households are the larger of the two.

Households in Larnaca district are largest, with a mean size of 3.9 people, and those in Paphos are the smallest with a mean size of 3.5 people. There is little variation in average household size among towns, with averages ranging from 3.6 persons in Nicosia to 3.8 persons in Larnaca. There is somewhat more variation in rural areas, however. The range is from 3.3 persons per household in Limassol to 3.9 persons per household in the villages of Larnaca.

Average household size declined from 4.0 in 1971, primarily because of the growth in one-person households (from 3 percent of the total in 1971 to 8 percent of the total in 1981). Two-person households increased from 17 percent of the total to 22 percent. With the exception of four-person households, all larger households have declined as a proportion of the total. The shift in household size is attributed to a reduction in the number of young married couples moving in with their parents.

The great majority of households (73 percent) are nuclear families consisting of a married couple (or single parent) with unmarried children. Households composed of one nuclear family and other related persons were 18 percent of all households, while single persons were 8 percent and composite households (those with one or more unrelated members) were 1 percent of the total in 1981. One-person and nuclear households are more common in rural areas — again, different from most countries — and the proportions of extended and composite households are highest in urban areas.

Household size is also declining because of lower fertility. In the past 30 years, the mean number of children born to married women dropped from 4.5 children to 3.2 children. The total fertility rate is now 2.3 children per woman. There has also been a change in the timing of births. Women now have their children soon after marriage, whereas in the past, births were spread out over a woman's entire reproductive life.

Fertility is higher in rural than in urban areas. The mean number of children born to urban women in 1981 was 2.8 in urban areas and 3.7 in rural areas. The higher a woman's education, the lower her fertility. Women with a primary education averaged 3.4 children each while women with a secondary education averaged 1.9 children each. Working women averaged slightly fewer children than women who did not work outside the home.

Cypriot women prefer small families, according to surveys. Women under age 30 wanted an average completed family size of 2.4 children in 1981; women aged 30 to 40 wanted about 2.6 children; and women aged 40 to 49 wanted 3.1 children. Boys are the preferred sex. An old wedding tradition calls for rolling a small boy across a mattress in order to insure the birth of sons.

Housing data for the entire island are not available for 1981, but a rough estimate based on total population and average household size would put the current number at about 178,000 units.

The average number of rooms per unit was 5 in urban areas and 4 in

rural areas. The overall average for the four southern Greek Cypriot districts was 4.4 rooms in 1981, identical to the 1971 figure.

Education

Education is compulsory and free for six years. As of 1981, 52 percent of the population aged 15 and over had attended primary school, 33 percent had attended at least one year of secondary school, and 7 percent had attended college. About 8 percent of the adult population had no formal schooling. The criterion for attainment is attendance for at least one year at a particular level.

As in most nations, younger persons are more highly educated than older persons. Among those aged 25 to 29, 48 percent had a secondary education and 14 percent had a college education. Few younger people have no schooling. At the older ages, the situation is reversed. Among persons aged 65 to 69, only 9 percent had a secondary education in 1981, and 24 percent had no formal schooling.

Men are also better educated than women. Nearly 50 percent of men over age 15 had a secondary or higher education in 1981, compared with one-third of women. Only 2 percent of adult men had never attended school versus 13 percent of adult women. These differences are diminishing as the population ages, however. Among persons aged 25 to 29, 51 percent of men and 45 percent of women had a secondary education; 16 percent of men and 11 percent of women had a college education.

Secondary schooling is divided into three programs: general classified science, commercial, and vocational. Sixty-one percent of secondary students attend science classes, 24 percent attend commercial classes, and 15 percent are enrolled in vocational instruction.

Nicosia has the most highly-educated population. Ten percent of the adult population there had a college education in 1981. Limassol ranked next with 7 percent of its population having a college education. Five percent of the Paphos population and 4 percent of Larnaca's population had some college training.

Social Class Distribution in the Republic of Cyprus

Social Class	Percent of males 20 years and over
I. Professionally qualified and high administrative	3.6
II. Managerial and executive (with some responsibility for directing and initiating policy)	5.6
III. Inspectional, supervisory, and other non-manual (higher grade)	5.3
IV. Inspectional, supervisory, and other non-manual (lower grade)	12.6
V. Routine grades of non-manual work, and skilled manual (if employers or self-employed)	31.4
VI. Manual skilled and semi-skilled (employed)	33.5
VII. Manual, routine	8.0

Source: Multi-round Demographic Survey 1980/1981, Main Report (Preliminary Issue), Department of Statistics and Research, Ministry of Finance, July 1983.

Labor Force

The 1980/81 Demographic Survey defined the economically active population as persons who worked for at least one hour during the week preceding the interview; the unemployed; and persons who had a job but were not working that week because of vacation or sick leave. Men in the National Guard are not considered part of the labor force.

The criterion of one hour of work per week is more liberal than past definitions of labor force activity. The 1976 census, for example, defined 14 hours as the minimum to qualify as economically active. This change makes historic comparisons impractical.

In 1981, 74 percent of men and 41 percent of women over age 15 were classified as economically active. If persons in the National Guard are included, the rate for men increases to 81 percent. Participation rates for women peak at ages 20 to 24 when 60 percent of women are in the labor force, and ages 40 to 44, when 53 percent of women work outside the home.

Participation rates for men are similar whether they live in urban or rural areas, but women are much less likely to work if they live in rural areas. Urban women aged 20 to 24 had a participation rate of 68 percent and the proportion declined steadily as age increased. Rural women aged 20 to 24, however, had only a 50-percent participation rate, with a decline afterward, and then an upswing to 64 percent between the ages of 45 and 49.

Female labor force participation is linked closely to marital status. Fifty-six percent of never-married women aged 15 to 64 were in the labor force, compared with 42 percent of married women and 51 percent of widowed, divorced, and separated women. Female employment is also highest among those with the highest education. About 41 percent of women with no schooling work, compared with 45 percent of those with primary or secondary education, and 71 percent of women with higher education.

Two categories — manufacturing and community, social and personal services — are the biggest employers, each employing about 20 percent of the labor force. Agriculture, forestry, and fishing is a close second, however, with 18 percent of the labor force. Wholesale and retail trade and construction each employ about 15 percent of the labor force. Construction employs about 22 percent of men and only 2 pereent of women, while agriculture employs 28 percent of women and only 12 percent of men. About 27 percent of women and 17 percent of men are employed in manufacturing.

About 48 percent of all workers were employees in the private sector, 23 percent were self-employed, and 16 percent were employed by government or semi-government organizations. Seven percent were unpaid family workers and 5 percent were employers. Unpaid family workers are predominantly women, while the employers are primarily men.

Of those usually employed, 86 percent worked full-time, 9 percent

part-time, and 5 percent "every now and then." Paphos has the lowest proportion of full-time workers — 77 percent — and the highest proportion of part-timers and occasional workers. Nicosia had the highest share of full-time workers — 91 percent.

Part-timers and occasional workers are usually women. The most frequently-cited reasons for not working full-time included housework and child care (32 percent of respondents), seasonal work (27 percent), and sickness or old age (18 percent). Women were most likely to cite housework and men most likely to cite health as the reason for not working full-time.

Income and Social Class

Per capita GNP in 1981 was $3,995 in U.S. dollars, down by about 5 percent from 1980's $4,219. Customary pay for overtime is time-and-a-half during the week and double time on holidays and weekends. Salaries are negotiated through collective bargaining with periodic cost of living adjustments.

The 1980/81 Demographic Survey reported a distribution of men aged 20 and over by social class. The main criterion used in establishing social class was occupation, but education and employment status were also considered. Persons without an occupation were counted as having a social class "not stated." The table, page 8, shows the status distribution of all men with occupations in 1981.

Classes I, II, and III combined account for 14.5 percent of all working men. These categories would be roughly similar to our white-collar occupations. Nearly one-third of the male labor force is in routine nonmanual or skilled manual labor, and another third are in skilled and semi-skilled manual occupations.

The higher the social class of the individual, the more likely he is to have assistance with housework in the home. Seven percent of all households reported having some household help, but 42 percent of members of the professional class had help and 30 percent of managers and executives had help, compared with less than 3 percent of manual workers. Urban households were more likely than rural households to have household help: 11 percent versus 2 percent. The majority of household labor in urban areas was paid for, while the majority of help in rural areas was provided free by relatives.

Sources of Information

The 1980/81 Multi-Round Demographic Survey is available in English in a 544-page preliminary report (Series III, Report No. 3, Price: L5,000). Tables include information on marital status, education, household size and composition, employment, and social class, in addition to the standard data on births, deaths, and migration. Although the results are generalizable to the entire Government-Controlled Area of Cyprus, sample totals are not weighted to national totals as they are in United States surveys. The tables are best used, therefore, for computing proportions rather than for actual numbers.

"THE HIGHER THE SOCIAL CLASS OF THE INDIVIDUAL, THE MORE LIKELY THERE IS ASSISTANCE WITH HOUSEWORK IN THE HOME."

Data for the entire nation, according to censuses conducted in 1976 and earlier, are available in the *1982 Demographic Report* (Series II, No. 20, Price: L1,000.). This 166-page report also includes current (1975-1982) data on births, deaths, marriages, divorces, and migration.

Both reports are available from the Printing Office of the Republic of Cyprus, Nicosia, Cyprus. Titles and prices of other publications are listed on the back of these reports.

The country study of Cyprus conducted by the Foreign Areas Studies staff at American University was published in 1980. It can be ordered from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Stock No. 008-020-00831-1, for $11.00. •

—Daphne Spain

Africa / *cont. from p. 3*

to the Kalahari where those people have sought survival under pressure from stronger Bantu and European language groups. Limited to the island of Madagascar, the dialects of Malagasy are related to Indonesian. That stimulates speculation about Kon-Tiki-like migrations across the Indian Ocean on the westward-flowing equatorial currents. The Afro-Asiatic languages have a distribution in Africa similar to that of the Islamic religion. The major language is Arabic which dominates the North African states. Amharic is the official language of non-Islamic Ethiopia. The Bantu languages are the most widely distributed. They contain several individual families of languages such as the Nguni of southeastern Africa which includes Xhosa, Zulu, and Swazi. Some trading languages such as Fula are found at widely-separated locations, others like Lingala are spoken over a single vast area. Between the two largest groups the Nilo-Saharan languages are found mainly in a great arc from northern Chad to the southern Sudan, Uganda, and western Kenya.

The preservation of African languages is not yet a problem but with increasing mobility and communication it could become a cultural issue. More than 40 African languages are each spoken by more than 1 million people and they are vital to modern Africa. One of them, Wolof, demonstrates just that in fulfilling a major post-colonial task by helping to unite the peoples of Senegal and The Gambia despite their different colonial experiences.

Literacy

In July 1966 an impressive ceremony was held in Lusaka, Zambia to install the chancellor of the University of Zambia. In the course of a long speech, the chancellor, President Kaunda, publicly wept for the educational opportunities denied his and earlier generations in colonial times, and vowed that his government would do all it could to right past wrongs. Many of his audience, which included academics bearing fraternal greetings from universities all over the world, were embarrassed: some because he cried, others be-

cause he did have something to cry about. In Zambia at independence there had been just one state secondary school and one technical college: not at all a proud record of colonial educational achievement.

Education is not a panacea for all the ills of Africa. Indeed it can be argued that there has been an overreaction to lost opportunities of colonial times, and that many in Africa have caught what has been called the "diploma disease." Emphasis has been placed on academic rather than technical subjects and on acquiring qualifications which may be unrelated to jobs available. Employers, including governments, have entered into the spirit of things with gusto, making inappropriate qualification demands of job candidates. The system raises expectations which cannot be fulfilled, is geared to urban aspirations, and so contributes to problems of accelerating urbanization and serious qualitative rural depopulation.

But at the root of the educational problem literacy itself ought to be a fundamental human right. Not because it is a job qualification but because of its intrinsic value, its basic contribution to the quality of human life. In ten African countries in 1979, less than 10 percent of the population was literate. They included the four poor, Muslim, landlocked states of the Sahel and poor, Muslim, equally arid Somalia, all states where, among other factors, nomadic life contributed to educational problems. Ethiopia, Angola, and Somalia were ravaged by war and poverty. Guinea, Senegal, and Liberia were less readily explicable except that in Liberia the Americanized elite did not see the need to extend education to the masses.

The literacy problem in Africa is almost universal. Only ten territories have literacy rates above 50 percent. Tanzania and Zimbabwe alone have literacy rates above 70 percent. These statistics correlate well with statistics of newspaper circulation, so revealing interesting traditions arising from, and themselves encouraging, literacy.

Uganda and Ethiopia committed the least proportion of their gross national product (GNP) to education, at 1.5 percent and 2 percent respectively. In contrast, 13 African states spent more than 5 percent of GNP on education in 1979. Political upheaval and civil war are clearly not conducive to investment in education. But African states are not alone in giving lower priority to education than to guns.

Education in Africa is a problem not only in overall resource terms but also in terms of making education relevant to the needs of the people. Illiteracy must be conquered because only then can one think of turning out people with the practical skills necessary for running railways and mines, operating factories, and above all, improving agriculture. •

The Modern Employment Market in Selected African Countries

Editor's Note: *The following is excerpted from a report on Jobs and Skills in the current issue of* Women at Work, *a publication of the International Labour Office in Geneva, Switzerland. Copies of the entire issue, which is subtitled, "Employment for Women (1975-85)," may be obtained for 12.50 Swiss francs by writing to ILO Publications, International Labour Office, CH-1211 Geneva 22, Switzerland.* International Demographics *continually offers information on women in the labor force because their paid employment has such a significant impact on both fertility rates and household income.*

In the area of employment it is in the modern sector that the structural imbalance between the sexes is most marked in African countries. In this sector the market functions according to specific rules whereby men predominate in jobs.

In an urban context of fierce competition in which training is a vital factor, the inferior schooling of girls and the traditional concept of women's role have not promoted the integration of women workers into the modern employment sector. Various recent surveys of employment and/or manpower in particular show that women still account for only a small proportion of workers in the private and semi-public sectors.

For example, women's private and semi-public employment is 4 percent in Togo, 4.6 percent in the Ivory Coast, 5.3 percent in Cameroon, 8.9 percent in Senegal, 10.2 percent in Madagascar and 12.7 percent in Benin. According to available data, it is in public service that women show a higher rate of participation: 11.5 percent of public workers in Cameroon are women, compared with 13.8 percent in Senegal, 19 percent in Madagascar, 19.1 percent in the Ivory Coast, 20.9 percent in Togo, and 21.2 percent in Benin.

While the proportion of women holding jobs is low, the percentage of women among employment seekers is around 20 percent in many countries (Madagascar, Ivory Coast, and Senegal are examples). The proportion of women among job applicants is in fact much higher than is shown by statistics because women make less use of employment offices and agencies. In this connection, the labour and migration survey carried out in Senegal in 1970 showed that only 1.6 percent of the employed female wage earners had obtained their job by application to employment offices.

Many factors now make it increasingly necessary for women to gain access to the employment market. As the number of girls with schooling grows, this group increasingly seeks paid or remunerative employ-

ment; as the general cultural level of the economically active female population rises, the work aspirations of this group alter; unemployment among male members of the family makes it necessary for women to contribute substantially to the household budget of the couple or the parents.

Mainly it is the deterioration of living conditions in rural areas and the irregularity of agricultural work because of seasonal factors that cause men and women to travel towards the urban employment market. All these factors adequately explain the rapid growth of employment demand. The manner in which the employment market operates may in fact be summed up by saying that it is simply a situation of supply and demand in which the opportunities are defined by the characteristics of the jobs held by women and of the recruiting enterprises. But that would be too simplistic. Economic and social reality is more complex than it appears. African countries now have a depressed economic situation: employment-generating investment is declining, the employment market is shrinking (less recruitment in the public sector, a decline in business activity and other economic and social factors) and hiring is becoming very selective.

There are three ways to classify the available jobs. In the first, an increasing proportion of very skilled and even highly skilled jobs are sought by women, making available jobs more competitive. At this level, the mechanism regulating the flow of school-leavers is fairly well controlled by the state, and in some countries, the assignment of women and men to jobs is channelled through administrative processes. Although still in small numbers, women are progressively making an appearance in such positions as lawyers, judges, teachers, doctors, and pharmacists and, to a lesser extent, in technical or management positions in private enterprises.

Second, women are now entering the employment market to perform work they hitherto carried out in the family setting, particularly in such industries as processing of fish products, packing and food processing, tobacco manufacture, and textile weaving and garment making. Women workers are sought in these industries because of their alleged agility and manual dexterity and because employment is often on a precarious basis (by the day or season). This is why in this particular sector there tends to be a preference for women workers, who are mainly illiterate, unskilled, and mostly non-unionized. These industries therefore offer low-paying jobs which many women in need of a cash income are compelled to accept.

"IN SUCH INDUSTRIES AS THE PROCESSING OF FISH PRODUCTS, PACKING AND FOOD PROCESSING, TOBACCO MANUFACTURE, AND TEXTILE WEAVING AND GARMENT MAKING, WOMEN WORKERS ARE PREFERRED. THEY ARE MAINLY ILLITERATE, UNSKILLED, AND MOSTLY NON-UNIONIZED."

Third, there is some degree of concentration in the case of those workers who have completed the intermediate level of secondary education. This degree of training leads them into administrative and commercial employment (secretarial work, bookkeeping, typing, work in offices, banks, the civil service, etc.). This reflects the manner in which women are participating in the growth of the wage-earning population.

In addition to the scarcity of jobs, a further special difficulty arises for women in that the market forces show there is some reluctance to employ them, a reluctance justified by stressing the drawbacks of production interruptions and irregularity in women's work due to family responsibilities. Managers (both male and female) base their attitudes on the behavior of individuals as well as citing economic priorities. The state also argues in terms of outputs, but mainly stresses social needs of community or family.

Aside from the question of disparity between the sexes in the area of employment, all the information provided by statistics, as well as pragmatic factors, tends to indicate that work by women is seen as constituting a basic element of the employment market.

While they play a particularly vital role in the mechanisms of that market, women workers still receive only scant attention in most African countries. The quality of employment planning would be enhanced if more and better information on women were available. Women at present are swelling the ranks of the job hunters and therefore increasing the numbers of unemployed, but there is no reason why both men and women should not obtain employment. What is necessary is that account should be taken of them in policy-making to increase women's economic productivity which will ultimately lead to socioeconomic progress in African countries. •

—K. Akadiri
ILO Employment and Manpower Planning Branch

Japanese Women / *cont. from p. 2*

Japan Trade Centers in the United States are located at the following addresses: 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020, telephone (212) 997-0400; 230 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL 60601, (312) 726-4390; 1221 McKinney Street, Houston, TX 77002, (713) 759-9595; 360 Post Street, San Francisco, CA 94108, (415) 392-1333; and 555 South Flower Street, Los Angeles, CA 90017, (213) 626-5700. •

— Jane K. Boorstein

Jane Boorstein is International Demographics' *New York correspondent.*

Publications

Fisherwomen on the Kerala Coast, by Leela Gulati, 1984, Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Organization, 156 pp., 20 Swiss francs. Order from ILO Publications, International Labour Office, CH-1211 Geneva 22, Switzerland.

This monograph examines the demographic and socioeconomic outcomes of a fisheries development project in the state of Kerala, India. The project, a joint Norwegian-Indian endeavor, was begun over 30 years ago with the introduction of mechanized boats and improved gear to modernize fishing, and the use of ice to improve the preservation of the fish. Improved health facilities and sanitation were also introduced.

The project was successful in meeting its objectives — productivity increased, income levels rose, and mortality rates fell. This book focuses on the project's social and economic impact on three villages, and in particular, on the women of those villages. In order to present a complete picture of the changing situation of women and families over the past 30 years, the author combines a case study approach — giving detailed biographical sketches of ten women and their households — with macro survey data, government statistical information, and data from church records.

Even though women were excluded from the core program to modernize fishing and fish preservation, they were still able to take advantage of the opportunities created by the new situation, explains author Leela Gulati. Women's participation in wage-earning activities increased as they began to work as food processors and net makers. But these jobs tend to be seasonal, and wages are low while conditions are unhygienic and unhealthy. Had women been assigned an "official" role in the development project's modernization of the processing, freezing, and trading of fish, and had they been given relevant training, they could have developed their skills and formed effective co-operatives, suggests the author. As a result, women's present participation would be more widespread, on a larger scale, and less marginal and exploitative.

One of the most dramatic changes brought about by the fisheries development projects is the decrease in family size. Once the women of the three villages "gained a greater security with respect to survival of children, and as the awareness of both the importance of limiting family size and the availability of sterilization facilities . . . increased, women . . . showed a remarkable readiness to take to family planning" Gulati says. The author concludes that investment in the social infrastructure must be an essential aspect to any development project.

Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Population and Conflict, edited by Nazli Choucri, 1984, Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press, 220 pp., $30.00 cloth, $13.95 paper. Order from Syracuse University Press, 1600 Jamesville Avenue, Syracuse, NY 13210.

This volume of essays discusses the sources of conflict in society and the way in which population variables lead to violence among individuals, groups, regions, and countries. Specialists in international development, political science, anthropology, sociology, and economics contribute their particular theoretical perspectives and empirical findings to this collection of eight papers. By placing demographic variables — births, deaths, and migration — in a broader socioeconomic and political context, the essayists show how these variables interrelate at the interpersonal, national, and international levels.

As editor Choucri explains, the population problems of this decade are not the same as those of the 1960s and 1970s, when attention was focused on rapid population growth and how to control it. Population issues today are not confined to matters of fertility and mortality, or even to the social and economic ramifications of population change, says Choucri. Rather, the time has come to acknowledge the effects of population factors on national and international politics, paying special attention to the possible creation of conflict. "At a time when military expenditures are escalating and insecurities abound, . . . it would be the height of myopia to persist in disregarding the increasing evidence concerning the relationship of population variables to conflict dynamics."

Policy-makers and social scientists will find this book both stimulating and controversial.

Handbook of Household Surveys (Revised Edition). Statistical Papers, Series F, No. 31, 277 pages, $29.00 (Sales No. E.83.XVII. 13). Available in English, French, Spanish, and Russian versions. Order from United Nations Sales Office, United Nations, New York, NY 10017.

The United Nations *Handbook of Household Surveys* is intended to help countries conduct better household surveys. In its treatment of sampling, the handbook aims at helping the non-specialist grasp some of the main issues and the ways they should be taken into account when a survey is being planned or organized. One of the primary purposes is to show how a continuing survey program can meet the varying data needs in a particular country. •

Coming Next Month:

Malaysia is one of the few Asian countries where the government encourages population growth. How will that affect it as a market?

Research International — another in the continuing series of profiles on market research firms that have offices in New York, but specialize in overseas market research •

A Mistaken Impression

In the August 1984 profile on Sao Paulo, an editing error produced a statement that the majority of Sao Paulo women in the labor force are domestic servants. That is a misimpression. The table showed that of the 1.7 million women in the labor force, 33 percent are employed in the services category, but not all as household workers. About 30 percent are employed in manufacturing industries, 15 percent of employed women work in the social services category, and 10 percent are employed in commerce. •

Regions

Europe

Great Britain

For the first time in 1983, the number of people working in non-manual occupations in Great Britain exceeded the number in manual occupations, according to the 1983 Labor Force Survey, the results of which were published late this year.

In 1981, the numbers of people in manual and non-manual occupations were about equal. By 1983, 51 percent of employed people worked in non-manual occupations.

Over a half million people had two or more jobs in 1983. They include both men and women. Women were about 41 percent of the labor force in 1983 and 44 percent of those holding two or more jobs.

For preliminary detailed information on the Labor Force Survey of 1983, request *OPCS Monitor* (Reference LFS 81/1) from Information Branch (Dept. M), Office of Population Censuses and Surveys, St. Catherines House, 10 Kingsway, London WC2B 6JP.

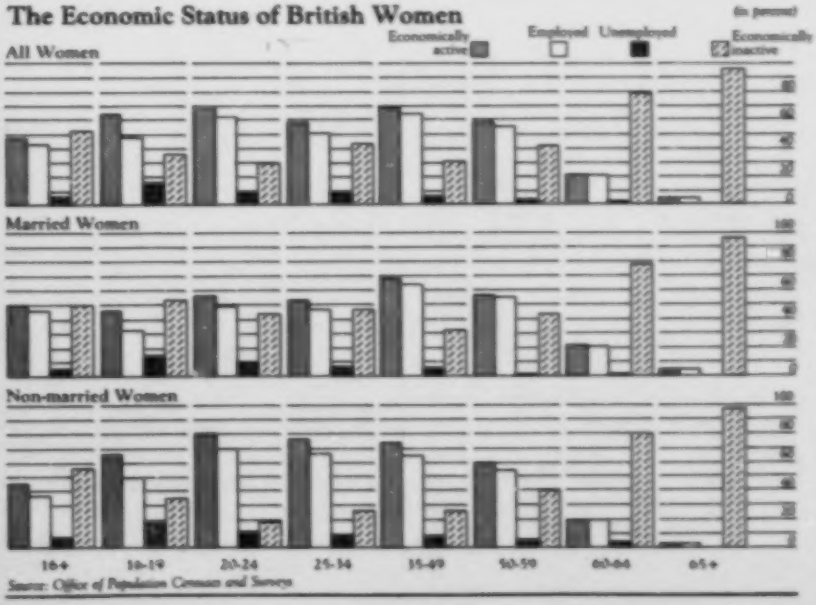
West Germany

Nearly 16 percent of West Germany's student population is now made up of foreign students, according to the Federal Bureau of Statistics in Weisbaden. Of the 70,000 foreign students in West German universities and tech-schools, about one-third are women.

In 1982, half the students came from other European countries, with Turkey and Greece particularly well represented. The largest non-European group was 18,500 Asian students, including 6,100 Iranians and 3,100 Indonesians. There were 4,000 African students, but almost as many (3,600) came from the United States.

Among the international students, the most popular degree programs are engineering and electronics. Next in line are language and culture, especially German, and economics and social sciences. Foreign students complete their studies successfully at about the same rate as the West German students.

The Economic Status of British Women



Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

North America

Canadian Furnishings

Microwave oven ownership is growing quickly in Canada, up nearly 4 percent in 1984 over 1983. Of the nearly 8.9 million households in Canada in 1984, about 16 percent said they own a microwave.

Alberta had the highest proportion of homes with microwave ovens at nearly 33 percent, followed by Saskatchewan at fully 29 percent. Gas barbeques were also popular in Alberta and Saskatchewan at 31 percent each. Only about 6 percent of households in Quebec had a gas barbeque.

Video recorders almost doubled in popularity in the last year. They are now in nearly 13 percent of Canadian homes while pay television was found in only 15 percent of homes. Fully 88 percent of homes had at least one color television set and nearly 18 percent had two or more, up from nearly 16 percent in 1983.

The share of households with only one person increased by about 1 percent during the year — from 19.6 percent of all households in 1983 to 20.7

percent of all households in 1984.

The estimates from the latest Household Facilities and Equipment Survey were prepared from data collected by a sample survey of approximately 35,000 households taken in the spring of 1984.

The accompanying table is reprinted from the Sept. 24, 1984 edition of *Statistics Canada Daily*. For provincial estimates and other details, order the 1984 issue of Household Facilities and Equipment (64-202, $6.65 in Canada; $7.75 elsewhere). For more information contact Cindy Veness or Penny Barclay at (613) 990-9775, Consumer Income and Expenditure Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A OT6, Canada.

Census Metropolitan Areas

Statistics Canada first designated census metropolitan areas (CMAs) in 1941. Over four decades, these areas have grown and developed and new areas have joined their ranks. The metropolitan concept has been refined and the program extended to include smaller areas called census agglomerations (CAs).

A working paper from Statistics Canada now traces the history of the concept and the areas themselves from 1941 to 1981. Tables show comparative population counts for CMAs and CAs in each census year since 1941 and, for the largest CMAs and CAs, a set of maps show the actual delineations for these areas over the same period.

"Census Metropolitan Areas/Census Agglomeration Program: A Review 1941-1981" (*Geography Series* No. 8 GEO 1984) is available for $10.00 from the Casual Sales Unit, Central Inquiries Service, Lobby, R. H. Coats Building, Ottawa K1A OT6. For more information call the Geography Division of Statistics Canada at (613) 990-9707.

Canada

Canada's population growth rate continues to slow. Between April 1, 1983 and April 1, 1984, population increased by 238,600 people to reach a total of 25,082,000. Although Alberta's growth rate has decelerated slightly, it is still growing five times faster than the rest of Canada.

There are now six Canadian provinces with a population of at least 1 million people; Saskatchewan reached the 1 million mark in December 1983.

The new telephone number for the Statistics Canada Inquiries Service is (613) 990-8116. The new number for the Sales Unit is (613) 990-8114. •

Household Facilities and Equipment in Canada: 1983 and 1984

		1984	1983[2]
	Number of Households (000's)	*Percent of Total Households*	*Percent of Total Households*
TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS[1]	**8,857**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Household size			
One person	1,829	20.7	19.6
Two persons	2,622	29.6	30.1
Three-four persons	3,291	37.2	37.1
Five or more persons	1,115	12.6	13.2
Tenure			
Owned with mortgage	2,785	31.4	31.0
Owned without mortgage	2,816	31.8	32.0
Rented	3,255	36.8	37.0
Type of dwelling			
Single detached	5,003	56.5	56.8
Single attached	799	9.0	8.6
Apartment or flat	2,860	32.3	32.3
Mobile home	195	2.2	2.3
Principal heating fuel			
Oil	2,240	25.3	28.6
Gas[3]	3,912	44.2	43.8
Electricity	2,224	25.1	23.3
Wood, coal and other	481	5.4	4.3
Air conditioners	1,468	16.6	17.1
Window type	805	9.1	10.1
Central unit	663	7.5	7.0
Microwave ovens	1,430	16.1	12.5
Gas barbecues	1,749	19.7	—
Home freezers	4,966	56.1	54.9
Automatic dishwashers	3,116	35.2	33.9
Built-in	2,014	22.7	21.6
Portable	1,102	12.4	12.3
TV sets	8,682	98.0	97.9
Color	7,833	88.4	87.3
Black and white	3,771	42.6	43.6
Cable television	5,319	60.1	58.9
Cable converters	2,780	31.4	26.3
Video recorders	1,104	12.5	6.4
Pay television	480	5.4	—
Smoke detectors	5,781	65.3	54.9(81)
Total vehicles[4]	7,250	81.9	—
Automobiles	6,833	77.1	79.2
Vans or trucks	1,775	20.0	—
Snow blowers	1,089	12.3	11.1(80)
Power lawn mowers	5,028	56.8	56.0(80)
Downhill skis	1,474	16.6	16.4(82)
Cross-country skis	2,281	25.8	25.3(82)
Owner-occupied dwellings only			
Dwelling improvements[5]	1,862	33.2	—
Heating or electrical equipment[6]	1,002	17.9	—
Plumbing[6]	706	12.6	—
Renovations	681	12.2	—
Structural repairs	518	9.2	—
Additions	145	2.6	—
Swimming pools	367	6.6	—

[1] *Includes mobile homes.*
[2] *The last available estimate from this survey produced prior to 1984. The year of the estimate is shown in brackets if other than 1983.*
[3] *Includes piped and bottled gas.*
[4] *Includes automobiles, vans and trucks owned by a household member. Excludes vehicles used primarily for business purposes.*
[5] *Improvements made during the last two years.*
[6] *Includes replacement of existing equipment or installation of new equipment in the dwelling.*
— *Figures not available.*

Source: Statistics Canada Daily, *Sept. 24, 1984.*

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